Lecture 7, Part 1: Object Oriented Modelling

Object Oriented Analysis

- Rationale
  - Identifying Classes
  - Attributes and Operations

Class Diagrams

- Associations
- Multiplicity
- Composition
- Generalization

Object Oriented Analysis

- Background
  - Model the requirements in terms of objects and the services they provide
  - Grew out of object oriented design
  - Applied to modelling the application domain rather than the program

- Motivation
  - OO is claimed to be more 'natural'
  - As a system evolves, the functions it performs need to be changed more often than the objects on which they operate...
  - A model based on objects (rather than functions) will be more stable over time...
  - Hence the claim that object-oriented designs are more maintainable
  - OO emphasizes importance of well-defined interfaces between objects
  - Compared to ambiguities of dataflow relationships

Note: OO applies to requirements engineering because it is a modeling tool. But we are modeling domain objects, not the design of the new system

Requirements & Domain Models

- Our analysis models should...
  - Represent people, physical things and concepts important to the analyst's understanding of what is going on in the application domain
  - Show connections and interactions among these people, things and relevant concepts.
  - Show the business situation in enough detail to evaluate possible designs.
  - Be organized to be useful later, during design and implementation of the software.
  - Allow us to check whether the functions we will include in the specification will satisfy the requirements
  - Test our understanding of how the new system will interact with the world

Nearly anything can be an object...

- External Entities
  - That interact with the system being modeled
  - E.g. people, devices, other systems

- Things
  - That are part of the domain being modeled
  - E.g. reports, displays, signals, etc.

- Occurrences or Events
  - That occur in the context of the system
  - E.g. transfer of resources, a control action, etc.

- Roles
  - Played by people who interact with the system

Organizational Units

- That are relevant to the application
  - E.g. division, group, team, etc.

Places

- That establish the context of the problem being handled
  - E.g. manufacturing floor, leading desk, etc.

Structures

- That define a class or assembly of objects
  - E.g. sensors, four-wheeled vehicles, computers, etc.

Some things cannot be objects:

- Procedures (e.g. print, invert, etc.)
- Attributes (e.g. blue, 50Mb, etc.)
What are classes?

- A class describes a group of objects with:
  - similar properties (attributes),
  - common behaviour (operations),
  - common relationships to other objects,
  - and common meaning ("semantics").

Examples
- employee: has a name, employee#, and department; an employee is hired, and fired; an employee works in one or more projects.

Finding Classes

- Finding classes source data:
  - Look for nouns and noun phrases in stakeholders' descriptions of the problem.
  - Include in the model if they explain the nature or structure of information in the application.

- Finding classes from other sources:
  - Reviewing background information;
  - Users and other stakeholders;
  - Analysis patterns;

- It’s better to include many candidate classes at first.
  - You can always eliminate them later if they turn out not to be useful.
  - Explicitly deciding to discard classes is better than just not thinking about them.

Selecting Classes

- Discard classes for concepts which:
  - Are beyond the scope of the analysis;
  - Refer to the system as a whole;
  - Duplicate other classes;
  - Are too vague or too specific
  - E.g., have too many or too few instances.

- Coad & Yourdon’s criteria:
  - Retained information: Will the system need to remember information about this class of objects?
  - Needed Services: Do objects in this class have identifiable operations that change the values of their attributes?
  - Multiple Attributes: If the class only has one attribute, it may be better represented as an attribute of another class.
  - Common Attributes: Does the class have attributes that are shared with all instances of its objects?
  - Common Operations: Does the class have operations that are shared with all instances of its objects?
  - External entities that produce or consume information essential to the system should be included as classes.

Objects vs. Classes

- The instances of a class are called objects.
  - Objects are represented as:

    Fred_Bloggs:Employee
    name: Fred Bloggs
    Employee #: 234609234
    Department: Marketing

- Two different objects may have identical attribute values (like two people with identical name and address).

- Objects have associations with other objects:
  - E.g., Fred_Bloggs:employee is associated with the KillerApp:project object.

  - But we will capture these relationships at the class level (why?)?
  - Note: Make sure attributes are associated with the right class.
    - E.g., you don’t want both managerName and manager# as attributes of Project! (Why?)?
Associations

- Objects do not exist in isolation from one another.
- A relationship represents a connection among things.
- In UML, there are different types of relationships:
  - Association
  - Aggregation and Composition
  - Generalization
  - Dependency
  - Realization
- Note: The last two are not useful during requirements analysis.

Class diagrams show classes and their relationships.

Association Multiplicity

- Ask questions about the associations:
  - Can a campaign exist without a member of staff to manage it?
    - If yes, then the association is optional at the Staff end - zero or one.
    - If a campaign cannot exist without a member of staff to manage it
      - then it is not optional.
    - If it must be managed by one and only one member of staff then we show it
      like this - exactly one.
    - What about the other end of the association?
      - Does every member of staff have to manage exactly one campaign?
        - No, so the correct multiplicity is zero or more.
- Some examples of specifying multiplicity:
  - Optional (0 or 1) 0..1
  - Exactly one 1 = 1..1
  - Zero or more 0..* = *
  - One or more 1..*
  - A range of values 1..6
  - A set of ranges 1..3, 10..15, 19..*

Class associations

- A class has a contact person as a staff member.
- A staff member has zero or more clients on his/her client list.

More Examples
### Association Classes

- Sometimes the association is itself a class
  - because we need to retain information about the association
  - ...and that information doesn't naturally live in the classes at the ends of the association
  - E.g. a "title" is an object that represents information about the relationship between an owner and her car

```
:car
VIN(vehicle Id Number) YearMade Mileage
owns 0..* :owner
:person
Name Address Driver.LicenceNumber PermittedVehicles
:title
yearbought initialMileage PricePaid LicencePlate#
```

### Generalization

- **Notes:**
  - Subclasses inherit attributes, associations, & operations from the superclass
  - A subclass may override an inherited aspect
  - E.g. AdminStaff & CreativeStaff have different methods for calculating bonuses
  - Superclasses may be declared (abstract), meaning they have no instances
  - Implies that the subclasses cover all possibilities
  - E.g. there are no other stuff than AdminStaff and CreativeStaff

```
Aggregation and Composition

- Aggregation
  - This is the "Has-a" or "Whole/part" relationship

- Composition
  - Strong form of aggregation that implies ownership:
    - if the whole is removed from the model, so is the part.
    - the whole is responsible for the disposition of its parts
```

### More on Generalization

- **Usefulness of generalization**
  - Can easily add new subclasses if the organization changes

- **Look for generalizations in two ways:**
  - **Top Down**
    - You have a class, and discover it can be subdivided
    - Or you have an association that expresses a "kind of" relationship
    - E.g. "Most of our work is on advertising for the press, that's newspapers and magazines, also for advertising hoardings, as well as for videos"
  - **Bottom Up**
    - You notice similarities between classes you have identified
      - E.g. "We have books and we have CDs in the collection, but they are all filed using the Dewey system, and they can all be lent out and reserved"

- **But don't generalize just for the sake of it**
  - Be sure that everything about the superclass applies to the subclasses
  - Be sure that the superclass is useful as a class in its own right
  - I.e. not one that we would discard using our tests for useful classes
  - Don't add subclasses or superclasses that are not relevant to your analysis
Evaluation of OOA

**Advantages of OO analysis for RE**
- Fits well with the use of OO for design and implementation
- Transition from OOA to OOD 'smoother' (but is it?)
- Removes emphasis on functions as a way of structuring the analysis
- Avoids the fragmentary nature of structured analysis
- Object-orientation is a coherent way of understanding the world
- Emphasis on objects brings an emphasis on static modeling
- Although later variants have introduced dynamic models
- Not clear that the modeling primitives are appropriate
- Strong temptation to do design rather than problem analysis
- Fragmentation of the analysis
- E.g., reliance on use-cases means there is no "big picture" of the user's needs
- Too much marketing hype!
  - E.g., no evidence that objects are a more natural way to think

**Disadvantages**
- Classes of objects with properties in common and an autonomous existence
- E.g., City, Department, Employee, Purchase and Sale
- An instance of an entity is an object in the class represented by the entity
  - E.g., Stockholm, Helsinki, are examples of instances of the entity City
- Logical links between two or more entities
  - E.g., Residence is a relationship that can exist between the City and Employee
- An instance of a relationship is an n-tuple of instances of entities
  - E.g., the pair (Johansen, Stockholm), is an instance in the relationship Residence.
Examples

Course and Room are entities.
- Their instances are particular courses (e.g., CSC340F) and rooms (e.g., MB128).

Meets is a relationship.
- Its instances describe particular meetings.
- Each meeting has exactly one associated course and room.

Recursive Relationships

- An entity can have relationships with itself...
- If the relationship is not symmetric...
  - Need to indicate the two roles that the entity plays in the relationship.
### Ternary Relationships

- **SUPPLIER** → **SUPPLY** → **PRODUCT** → **DEPARTMENT**
- **S₁** → **P₁** → **D₁**
- **S₂** → **P₂** → **D₁**
- **S₁** → **P₁** → **D₂**
- **S₂** → **P₂** → **D₂**

### Attributes

- Associates with each instance of an entity (or relationship) a value belonging to a set (the domain of the attribute).
- The domain determines the admissible values for the attribute.

### AND/XOR Relationships

- **Order** XOR **Part**
- "Each Order either contains a part or requests a service, but not both"  
- **Order** AND **Service**
- "For any given order, whenever there is at least one invoice there is also at least one shipment and vice versa"
- **Order** XOR **Shipment**
- **Order** AND **Invoice**

### Composite Attributes

- These group attributes of the same entity or relationship that have closely connected meanings or uses.
**Cardinalities**

- Cardinalities constrain participation in relationships
  - Maximum and minimum number of relationship instances in which an entity instance can participate.
  - E.g.
    - EMPLOYEE
      - (1,5)
      - ASSIGNMENT
      - (0,50)
      - TASK
  - Cardinality is any pair of non-negative integers \((a, b)\)
    - Such that \(a=0\).
    - If \(a=0\) then entity participation in a relationship is optional.
    - If \(a=1\) then entity participation in a relationship is mandatory.
    - If \(b=1\) each instance of the entity is associated with at most a single instance of the relationship.
    - If \(b=\infty\) each instance of the entity is associated with an arbitrary number of instances of the relationship.

**Cardinality Example**

- "A course meets twice a week" (Course: (2,2))
- "A day can have an unlimited number of meetings" (Day: (0,N))
- "A room can have up to 40 meetings per week" (Room: (0,40))

**Instantiating ER diagrams**

- An ER diagram specifies what states are possible in the world being modeled.
  - Course (2,2) Meets (0,40) Room
Illegal Instantiations

Cardinalities of Attributes

- Attributes can also have cardinalities
  - To describe the minimum and maximum number of values of the attribute associated with each instance of an entity or a relationship
  - The default is (1,1)
  - Optional attributes have cardinality (0,1)

- Multi-valued attribute cardinalities are problematic
  - Usually better modelled with additional entities linked by one-to-many (or many-to-many) relationships

Identifiers (also known as “keys”)

- How to uniquely identify instances of an entity?
  - An identifier may be formed by one or more attributes of the entity itself
  - If attributes of an entity are not sufficient to identify instances unambiguously, other entities can be involved in the identification
  - A relationship is identified using identifiers for all the entities it relates:
    - E.g. the identifier for the relationship (Person -) Owns(-Car) is a combination of the Person and Car identifiers.

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Notes on Identifiers

- Identifiers and cardinality:
  - An identifier can involve one or more attributes, provided that each has (1,1) cardinality
  - An external identifier can involve one or more entities, provided that each is a member of a relationship to which the entity to identify participates with cardinality (1,1)

- Cycles
  - An external identifier can involve an entity that is in its turn identified externally, as long as cycles are not generated;

- Multiple identifiers
  - Each entity must have at least one (internal or external) identifier
  - An entity can have more than one identifier
    - Note: if there is more than one identifier, then the attributes and entities involved in an identification can be optional (minimum cardinality equal to 0).
Modeling an Application with Identifiers

Identifiers provide an important modeling tool

- E.g., Assume we want a database storing information about lecture meetings.
- If we use the identifier <coursename, day, hour> for the Meeting entity,
  - This says there can only be one meeting at any one time for a given course name, day, hour; we can’t have two sections of the same course meeting at the same day+hour.
- If we use only <coursename> as identifier for Meeting,
  - This says that there can only be one meeting per given course name (unreasonable).
- If we use <courseinstructor, room> as identifier for Meeting,
  - We are stating that there can only be one meeting for a given instructor+room combination, so an instructor must have all her meetings in different rooms!
- If we use <courseinstructor> by itself as identifier for Meeting,
  - We are stating that each instructor participates in at most one meeting (unreasonable).

Generalizations

Show “is-a” relationships between entities

- Inheritance:
  - Every instance of a child entity is also an instance of the parent entity
  - Every property of the parent entity (attribute, identifier, relationship or other generalization) is also a property of a child entity

Types of Generalizations

- Total generalizations:
  - Every instance of the parent entity is an instance of one of its children
  - Shown as a solid arrow
  - (otherwise: Partial, shown as an unfilled arrow)
- Exclusive generalizations:
  - Every instance of the parent entity is at most an instance of one of its children
  - (otherwise: overlapping)
The E-R Meta-Model (as an E-R Diagram)